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Effortful control as a moderator of the association between attachment insecurity and worry

Undergraduate Research Thesis

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Abstract

Recent work shows that worriers high in effortful control (EC; a measure of self-regulatory capacity) are able to avoid anxious arousal despite worrying by constraining their worry to a verbal mode of thinking. In contrast, worriers low in this capacity tend to worry in images, which engenders a constant high level of anxious arousal. These two styles are similar to two styles of adult attachment insecurity: avoidant versus anxious insecurity. Despite similarities, EC's moderating ability of the association between worry and adult attachment insecurity has not been adequately researched. This study tested the hypothesis that which style of insecurity an individual shows will be associated differently with worry at varying levels of effortful control. Specifically, those with high effortful control would tend to have a more positive association of worry with avoidant insecurity than those with low effortful control. Those worriers with low effortful control would tend to have a more positive association with anxious insecurity than those with high effortful control. Empirically supported questionnaire measures of EC, worry, and attachment style were collected from a sample of 721 undergraduates (ages 18-29, M = 19.03, SD = 1.5, 43.3% female). Regression analyses revealed a small but significant effect for EC moderating the association between worry and avoidant insecurity, albeit only in males. The general pattern was such that when EC was high, avoidant insecurity was positively associated with worry. However, there were no significant effects of EC moderating any association between anxious insecurity and worry. Additionally, ancillary analyses showed that high levels of effortful control seems to act as a protective factor against worry regardless of levels of anxious or avoidant insecurity. These findings show the importance

of considering individual differences in effortful control for understanding how severe worriers resolve attachment insecurity and risk for severe worry, given such insecurity.

Effortful control as a moderator of the association between attachment insecurity and worry

Worry is a normative mental function, in which one thinks in words or images, with the purpose of anticipating and avoiding future negative events. When worry becomes chronic and harmful, an individual can be diagnosed with Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD; Borkovec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004). Approximately 4% of the population within the United States is diagnosed with GAD and 1% of the population is reported to experience severe symptoms (Kessler, Chiu, Demler, & Walters, 2005). GAD, though prevalent, has the lowest treatment success rate out of all anxiety disorders (Newman, Llera, Erickson, Przeworski, & Castonguay, 2013). Better understanding worry as a mechanism can pave the way for developing more effective treatment for anxiety or worry-based disorders in general.

Recent studies have shown that individuals worry in different ways in order to fulfill different functions. Much of this variance hinges upon effortful control. Effortful control (EC) is defined as an individual's capacity to override a dominant affective response (Rothbart, 2007). Several conflicting models of GAD have been proposed based on worry's relationship with anxious arousal. Two widely accepted models account for different ends of the anxious arousal spectrum experienced by chronic worriers. Borkovec's Cognitive Avoidance (CognAv) Model suggests that individuals avoid becoming anxiously aroused through the process of worrying. It is thought that switching to a verbal form of worrying allows these individuals to deactivate their anxious arousal (Borkevec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004). Further, this process of attentional redirection to verbal worry would require a greater reservoir of EC (Price & Mohlman, 2007). Conversely, Newman's Contrast Avoidance (ContrAv) Model posits that chronic worriers avoid

unpredictable, aversive spikes in their experience of autonomic arousal. They do this by using worry as a vehicle for maintaining a constant high level of anxious arousal and negative emotionality (Newman & Llera, 2011).

These two models suggest the existence of two separate chronic worry phenotypes as both hyperactivating and deactivating worriers (Behar et al., 2009; Borkevec, Alcaine, & Behar, 2004; Llera & Newman, 2010, 2014; Llera, Erickson, Przeworski, & Castonguay, 2013; Newman, Llera, Erickson, Przeworski, & Castonguay, 2013; Newman & Llera, 2011). Until recently, a universal model of anxious arousal in GAD was not available. Vasey, Chriki, and Toh (2016) developed an integrative model, accounting for the heterogeneity of worriers, with respect to varying levels of EC and anxious arousal. As these authors put it:

A worrier high in cognitive control capacity should have greater success in making and maintaining the shift to a verbal mode of threat processing that is central to the CognAv model thereby limiting activation of AA (anxious arousal) symptoms. In contrast, a worrier low in such capacity should have difficulty performing or maintaining such a shift, instead processing threat possibilities predominantly as images, which should result in heightened AA symptoms, in keeping with the ContrAv model.

Further evidence supporting EC's effect on the differing experience of AA and the variance in worrys function, is demonstrated in a study conducted by Derryberry and Reed in 2002. The results of this experiment suggest that instances of higher attentional control (AC), a factor closely related to EC, protects against vulnerability to anxiety. Moreover, in examining the effect of AC in association with varying levels of trait anxiety, individuals demonstrated differing proficiency in disengaging from threatening stimuli. The practice of averting one's attention from a threat stimulus is similar to that of suppressing anxious arousal through the

implementation of verbal worry. Both processes require EC and AC resources in order to override tendencies toward autonomic arousal. In line with this understanding of EC's effect on the execution of autonomic suppression, this study showed that individuals high in trait anxiety and AC demonstrated the ability to divert their attention from a threatening stimulus, while individuals high in trait anxiety and low in attentional control expressed significant difficulty with this task. In agreeance with the integrated GAD model proposed by Vasey et al. (2016), the findings of Derryberry and Reed suggest that greater EC allows individuals to suppress anxiety symptoms, while lower EC is associated with the hyperactivation of arousal for the purpose of avoiding unanticipated spikes of anxiety symptoms. Research has identified EC as a moderator of the association between vulnerability factors and worry. To better understand worry, testing EC's moderating impact on attachment insecurity as a vulnerability for worry is a practical starting point.

One of the greatest challenges and sources of worry experienced by GAD patients is interpersonal relationships (Brown & Barlow, 1992; Roemer, Molina & Borkovec, 1997). Pincus and Borkovec (1994) observed a divergence in interpersonal styles amongst GAD patients that aligns with the two dimensions of attachment insecurity. According to Mikulincer, Shaver, and Berant (2013), adult attachment style is the pattern of psychological and behavioral responses that are developed from attention attainment experiences with primary caregivers, beginning in infancy. Attachment theory suggests that the adoption of these response styles is a product of evolution, and serves the purpose to "increase the chances of being protected from physical and psychological threats," while encouraging "the development of coping skills related to emotion regulation and healthy exploration of the physical and social environment (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Berant, 2013).

Attachment insecurity can be divided into several categories: secure, insecure avoidant, insecure anxious, and disorganized. For the purpose of this study, I specifically focused on avoidant insecurity and anxious insecurity, as these are associated with more worry and distress. Additionally, avoidant insecurity and anxious insecurity appear to follow a deactivating and hyperactivating pattern of anxious arousal quite similar to the one observed amongst different kinds of chronic worriers.

Avoidant insecurity is characterized by one's tendency to mistrust others' or a partner's good intentions, and to consequently maintain distance within personal relationships (Mikulincer et al, 2013). Avoidantly insecure individuals tend to deactivate their emotional arousal, as a learned response to a lack of attention from caregivers during emotional displays, or because early attachment figures responded negatively to anxious displays (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012; Thompson, 1994). Attachment insecurity is relevant to the discussion of heterogeneity within GAD populations, due to the prevalence of interpersonal problems amongst these individuals. Multiple studies have attempted to clarify the relationship between attachment styles and GAD, but most results have been inconsistent. (Brumariu & Kerns, 2010; Colonnesi et al, 2011; Groh et al, 2012; Madigan et al, 2013). Mickelson, Kessler, and Shaver (1997), found that both insecure anxiety and insecure avoidance correlated with GAD symptoms. In contradiction, other studies have found only effects for insecure avoidant attachment. In other words, research shows inconsistent effects, suggesting that an untested moderator may be at work.

When analyzing interpersonal problems and styles observed in a sample of GAD individuals, Pincus & Borkovec (1994) found that 62.1% of the clients possessed "overly nurturant and intrusive" interpersonal styles. The rest of this sample was determined to be "cold/vindictive" and "socially avoidant/nonassertive" in their interpersonal interactions.

Insecure attachment styles vary across two separate orthogonal dimensions, delineated as insecure anxious attachment and insecure avoidant attachment. Anxious insecurity corresponds to the degree that one worries that their partner or someone within their interpersonal circle will be unavailable, unresponsive, or disinterested during their time of need (Mikulincer et al, 2013). Individuals with anxious insecurity learn to rely on hyperactivating emotional stress as an attachment strategy (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2012). This is adopted by the individual through the experience of attaining a caregiver's attention or affection through pronounced emotional displays (Thompson, 1994).

Given the tendency for EC to protect worriers against the experience of anxious arousal, as well as inconclusive associations between insecure attachment styles and worry, the moderating effects of EC may well account for some heterogeneity amongst chronic worriers. The question investigated is; to what degree does EC moderate the association of worry with specific styles of attachment insecurity. Specifically, I posit that when EC is high, worry will be more positively associated with avoidant insecurity than when EC is low. Concurrently, when EC is high, avoidant insecurity will be more positively associated with worry than when EC is low. When EC is low, worry will be more negatively associated with anxious insecurity than when EC is high. Concurrently, when EC is low, anxious insecurity will be more negatively associated with worry than when EC is high.

Method

Participants and Procedures:

Participants consisted of students recruited through the OSU Psychology Department's Research Experience Program (REP). There were a total of 746 participants. 43.3% of the sample self-identified as female and most were in their first year of college (66.4%). The age range was 18-

29 (*M*=19.03, *SD*=1.5). The sample was primarily Caucasian (81.1% African American: 3.3%, Asian American: 7.7%, Latino/Latina: 3.0%, Native American: .1%, Mixed Ethnicity: 2.1%, Other: 2.6%). A 30 minute Survey Monkey survey was administered. REP credit was awarded to participants after accessing the survey. Questionnaire order was randomized for each participant. No identifying information was collected during the online survey session. Credit was awarded regardless of survey completion.

Materials:

Demographics Questionnaire. I assessed demographics information through a general questionnaire. This was a short form made for collecting information on age, gender, year in school, ethnicity, marital status, and primary language.

Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale (ECS-P/LD). I measured Effortful Control through the ECS-P/LD subscale. The ECS-P/LD is a 12-item self-report scale that assesses an individual's capacity for attentional control and activational control (Lonigan & Phillips, 2001). Because I was more interested in internalizing symptoms, only the P/LD subscale was used, as it focuses on the components of EC most related to anxiety and worry. The Impulsivity scale focuses more on externalizing symptoms and so it was less relevant to this study (Muris & Ollendick, 2005). Additionally, the P/LD is more frequently used and there is less psychometric support for the other subscale. The questions are arranged in a 5-point Likert scale format with items ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much). All items are reversely scored, so a lower score indicates higher EC. Examples of questions found on the ECS-P/LD subscale include: "I really dislike it when someone breaks the rules," and "I find it easy to concentrate on what I am doing" (Lonigan & Phillips, 2001). The ECS-P/LD subscale has adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .82$) (Vasey et al., 2013).

Experience in Close Relationships Questionnaire – Short form (ECR-S). I measured style of Attachment Insecurity through the ECR-S. The ECR-S is a 12-item self-report questionnaire shortened from a 36-item long version. It assesses general adult attachment patterns and can be split into avoidant and anxious subscales. The questions are arranged in a 7-point Likert scale format with items ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 7 (agree strongly). The avoidant subscale includes questions like: "I want to get close to my partner, but I keep pulling back," but reversely scores some questions, such as: "It helps to turn to my romantic partner in times of need." The anxious subscale includes questions like: "I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my partner," and only reversely scores one question: "I do not often worry about being abandoned." Studies show that the short form was as valid as the long form of the ECR. The two subscales were found to be distinctly different, indicating that they reflect different dimensions of attachment. Additionally, the test-retest reliability of the ECR-S was r =.80 over a 1-month interval (Wei, Russel, Mallinckrodt, & Vogel, 2007).

Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised (WAQ). I measured Worry through the WAQ, a 6 part inventory consisting of a total of 22 questions. It is designed to assess Generalized Anxiety Disorder symptoms with an emphasis on worry. The first part is an open answer asking participants to list six subjects that they worry about most often. Parts 2-6 consist of questions arranged in a 9-point Likert scale format with items ranging from 0 (Not at all excessive, never, no difficulty, etc.) to 8 (Totally excessive, Every day, Extreme difficulty, etc.). Some examples of questions included are: "Do your worries seem excessive or exaggerated?" and "Over the past six months, how many days have you been bothered by excessive worry?" I decided to use the WAQ instead of the GADQ-IV and the PSWQ for several reasons. The PSWQ, although valid and well-established, does not assess the somatic symptoms of worry that aid indicating severity

and impact of worry. Further, it is only a 5-point Likert scale so the WAQ, being a 9-point Likert scale allows for more specificity in answers (Meyer et al., 1990). The GAD-Q-IV is also a commonly used measure of Worry. However, the GAD-Q-IV uses a complicated scoring system and has five dichotomous questions. Dichotomous questions can produce unreliable scores and do not assess frequency or intensity of symptoms, making a Likert scale-based measure like the WAQ preferable (Newman et al., 2002; Doucet, 2008). Research endorses sensitivity of the WAQ and strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .93$). The WAQ has been shown to correlate significantly with most prominent measures of worry. Additionally, the test-retest reliability was high ($r = .79$, $p<.01$) (Doucet, 2008).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

All analyses reflect complete data from 721 participants (96.6% of the original sample). Participants with incomplete data were not significantly different from participants with complete data across any variable. Table 1 includes descriptive statistics and correlations for all measures.

Data Analytic Strategy

All study hypotheses were tested through multiple linear regression (MLR) analyses. All continuous variables were standardized to be zero-centered. Product terms were computed following standardization of variables. All main effects were thus tested at average levels of the variables within the model through PROCESS. Regression diagnostics were conducted for each model to check for high influence cases. Standardized DFFITS and Standardized DFBETA values were analyzed using ±1.0 as a cutoff. One high influence case was identified and removed

from the data set, because in more than one regression model, it led to standardized DFFITS values greater than 1.0 and was a clear outlier in EC score. Further, 24 other cases were removed because they were missing at least one measure included in analysis.

All models were run through the PROCESS utility for SPSS, which was also used to further analyze and interpret effects. The Johnson-Neyman technique, conducted through PROCESS, was used to identify regions of significance for the simple slope of the predictor at all observed values of the moderator. Regions of significance are reported in terms of standard deviations from the mean of the moderator. Simple slopes were also created through PROCESS at specific values of the moderator. Specifically, all interactions are illustrated by way of simple slopes for each predictor at high (i.e., +1 SD) and low (i.e., -1 SD) values of the moderator, for purposes of illustration.

Prediction 1: EC will moderate worry's association with avoidant attachment.

As shown in Table 2, the overall model was significant (R^2=.079, p< .001), suggesting that EC, Sex, Anxious Insecurity, and WAQ account for a significant portion of the variability in Avoidant Insecurity scores. Consistent with predictions, WAQ x EC (p = .019) significantly predicted Avoidant Insecurity and that interaction was further moderated by Sex (p=.014). Additional analyses revealed that the WAQ x EC interaction was only significant in Males (p=.025) and not for Females (p=.343). When running this model selecting specifically for males, the overall model was significant (R^2=.196, p=.004). At ±1 standard deviation from the mean of EC, the effect of WAQ was not significant. However, at EC <-1.693 and EC >2.136 standard deviations from the mean, the effect becomes significant (respectively; p=.05, p=.051). The simple slope that this produced at ± 1 SD from the mean, as seen in figure 1, shows that when EC was high, WAQ was more positively associated with Avoidant Insecurity than when

EC was low and when EC was low, WAQ was more negatively associated with Avoidant Insecurity than when EC was high.

Prediction 2: EC will moderate avoidant attachment's association with worry.

As shown in Table 3, the overall model was significant (R^2=.225, p< .001), suggesting that EC, Sex, Anxious Attachment, and Avoidant Insecurity account for a significant portion of the variability in WAQ scores. The Avoidant Insecurity x EC interaction was significant (p = .008), however, there was a trend for that effect to be further moderated by Sex (p = .072). Additional analyses revealed that the EC x Avoidant Attachment interaction was only significant for Males (p=.017) and not for Females (p=.898). When running this model selecting specifically for males, the overall model was significant (R^2=.480, p>.001). At ±1 standard deviation from the mean of EC, the effect of WAQ was not significant. However, at EC <-1.023 and EC >1.590 standard deviations from the mean, the effect becomes significant. The simple slope that this produced at ± 1 SD from the mean, as seen in figure 2, shows that when EC is high, Avoidant Insecurity was more positively associated with WAQ than when EC was low and when EC was low, Avoidant Insecurity was more negatively associated with WAQ than when EC was high.

Prediction 3: EC will moderate worry's association with anxious attachment.

As shown in Table 4, the overall model was significant (R^2=.156, p < .001), however, the main interaction of WAQ x EC predicting Anxious Insecurity was not significant (p=.702) and this effect was not further moderated by sex (p=.916). Further, there was a significant interaction between Sex and WAQ (p < .017). Specifically, there was a larger effect of WAQ on Anxious Insecurity at average levels of EC for Males than Females (Males; B=.356, p=.001, Females; B=.173, p=.004).

Prediction 4: EC will moderate anxious attachment's association with worry.

As shown in Table 5, the overall model was significant (R^2=228, p < .001), however, the main interaction of Anxious Insecurity x EC predicting WAQ was not significant (p=.330) and this effect was not further moderated by Sex (p=.783). Analyses did reveal a significant interaction between Anxious Insecurity and Sex (p=.004). Specifically, there was a larger effect of Anxious Attachment on WAQ at average levels of EC for Males than Females (Males; B=.350, p=.001, Females; B=.150, p=.005). Additionally, there was an interaction between EC and Sex (p=.042). Specifically, there was a larger negative effect of Anxious Insecurity on WAQ at average levels of EC for Females than Males (Females; B= -.381, p<.001, Males; B= -.24, p<.001).

Discussion

This study sought to determine effortful control's moderating impact on the association between style of attachment insecurity and worry. I had predicted that when EC was high, worry would be more positively associated with avoidant insecurity. Also, when EC was low, worry would be more positively associated with anxious insecurity. Results partially accorded to predictions. Table 2 shows that EC moderated the association between avoidant insecurity and worry, such that it was positive. However, this effect only approached significance in our whole sample, but was significant in the male portion of the sample. Similarly, in the model in which worry predicted avoidant insecurity, as seen in Table 3, the association was positive, but it was not significant in the full sample. However, it was significant in males.

There could be several explanations for this inconsistency between males and females. Attachment theory in the past did not account for sex differences. The traditional theory was that there were not sex differences in attachment style because they were developed out of survival

needs. Recent research has shown mixed results in assessing sex differences among children and infants, typically trending towards inconclusive (Del Giudice & Belsky, 2010). However, in studies addressing the romantic attachment aspect of attachment insecurity, more consistent patterns of attachment insecurity can be seen. Men tend toward greater levels of avoidance within a romantic context than women, while women experience more anxiety (Del Giudice & Belsky, 2010). Further, it is now more commonly predicted that sex differences should exist within attachment insecurity due to different life histories, socialization, and parental attention differences. There is some evidence for the possibility that avoidant insecurity may be more prevalent among men, which could contribute to the effect being singularly present in our male sample. However, this is only speculation, as it could be also that the sample was too small to find an effect for females, since fewer females participated in the study (n=317).

In assessing anxious insecurity, there were no significant effects in either model. However, the patterns that I predicted did emerge. When EC was low, there was a positive association between worry and anxious insecurity. Ancillary analyses supported EC's protective ability for vulnerabilities like worry and attachment insecurity. Regardless of style of attachment insecurity or gender, all models revealed that having higher EC was associated with lower scores in worry. This supports past research that supposes high EC protects individuals from experiencing higher levels of anxiety symptoms.

This study can be viewed as an exploratory approach to better understanding EC's moderating capability and how interpersonal styles can vary with worry strategies. The data suggest that EC plays a role in moderating the association between avoidant insecurity and worry. However, nothing conclusive in regards to anxious attachment emerged. If this study were to be replicated with a larger sample, it is possible that a significant effect may be found for

anxious attachment. Conducting this research with a clinical sample of chronic worriers from a GAD population may also be another way to better explore these effects. Also, testing these predictions in a larger sample would be necessary to assess the significance of the gender effect that emerged.

Better understanding the way people worry differently has important implications for the treatment of anxiety disorders, general attachment insecurity, and our standing knowledge of worry as a mechanism. Individuals diagnosed with GAD tend to report high levels of anxiety over interpersonal issues. Understanding how one's specific attachment style can predict how they worry, or vice versa, allows for a more specific understanding of how GAD (or other anxiety disorders) may manifest in an individual. The finding that EC can moderate this relationship suggests lends further credence to the theory that there worry fulfills diverse functions in different individuals.

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Table 1

Correlations and descriptive statistics for all measures

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	*M*	*SD*
1. Sex	-	.22	-.02	.01	**-.08**	-	-
2. ECR-S-AV		-	**-.10**	**-.25**	**.12**	18.92	6.92
3. ECR-S-AX			-	**-.29**	**.35**	22.00	6.87
4. ECS-PLD				-	**-.38**	44.41	7.30
5. WAQ					-	31.57	18.75

Note: N = 721. Bold correlations are significant at $p < .05$. Cronbach's alphas are not depicted, however all measures are empirically supported and have test-retest reliability, ECR-S-AV = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form avoidant subscale, ECR-S-AX = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form anxious subscale, ECS-PLD = Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale, WAQ = Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised

Table 2

Effortful control and worry predicting avoidant attachment

	(n=712)			**Males (n=404)**		
	R^2	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**	**R^2**	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**
DV: ECR-S-AV	**.196**		**.004**	**.04**		**.004**
Constant		-.01 (.05)	.85		.02 (.05)	.75
ECS-PLD		-.23 (.04)	< .001		-.16 (.06)	.003
WAQ		.02 (.04)	.63		-.01 (.06)	.89
ECR-S-AX		.03 (.04)	.50		.02 (.05)	.71
Sex		.06 (.07)	.43			
WAQ x Sex		.06 (.08)	.42			
ECS-PLD x Sex		-.15 (.08)	.06			
WAQ x ECS-PLD		.04 (.04)	.02		.12 (.05)	.03
WAQ x ECS-PLD x Sex		-.16 (.07)	.01			

Note: WAQ = Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised total score, ECS-PLD = Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale, ECR-S-AV = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form avoidant subscale, ECR-S-AX = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form anxious subscale

Table 3

Effortful control and avoidant attachment predicting worry

	(n=712)			**Males (n=404)**		
	R^2	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**	**R^2**	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**
DV: WAQ	**.22**		**< .001**	**.23**		**< .001**
Constant		.08 (.05)	.09		.08 (.05)	.07
ECS-PLD		-.31 (.04)	< .001		-.25 (.05)	< .001
ECR-S-AV		.01 (.03)	.79		-.02 (.05)	.62
ECR-S-AX		.26 (.03)	< .001		.33 (.05)	< .001
Sex		-.14 (.07)	.04			
ECR-S-AV x Sex		.06 (.07)	.38			
ECS-PLD x Sex		-.06 (.07)	.39			
ECR-S-AV x ECS-PLD		.06 (.03)	.07		.12 (.05)	.02
ECR-S-AV x ECS-PLD x Sex		-.13 (.07)	.07			

Note: WAQ = Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised total score, ECS-PLD = Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale, ECR-S-AV = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form avoidant subscale, ECR-S-AX = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form anxious subscale

Table 4

Effortful control and worry predicting anxious attachment

	(n=712)		
	R^2	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**
DV: ECR-S-AX	**.156**		**< .001**
Constant		-.01 (.05)	.79
ECS-PLD		-.18 (.05)	.0003
WAQ		.36 (.05)	<.001
ECR-S-AV		.03 (.04)	.40
Sex		-.001 (.07)	.99
WAQ x Sex		-.18 (.08)	.02
ECS-PLD x Sex		.01 (.08)	.89
WAQ x ECS-PLD		-.02 (.05)	.70
WAQ x ECS-PLD x Sex		.01 (.07)	.92

Note: WAQ = Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised total score, ECS-PLD = Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale, ECR-S-AV = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form avoidant subscale, ECR-S-AX = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form anxious subscale

Table 5

Effortful control and anxious attachment predicting worry

	(n=712)		
	R^2	**B (SE)**	***p*-value**
DV: WAQ	**.23**		**<.001**
Constant		.08 (.05)	.09
ECS-PLD		-.24 (.05)	<.001
ECR-S-AX		.35 (.05)	<.001
ECR-S-AV		.01 (.03)	.78
Sex		-.15 (.07)	.03
ECR-S-AX x Sex		-.20 (.07)	.004
ECS-PLD x Sex		-.14 (.07)	.04
ECR-S-AX x ECS-PLD		.04 (.04)	.33
ECR-S-AX x ECS-PLD x Sex		.02 (.06)	.78

Note: WAQ = Worry and Anxiety Questionnaire – Revised total score, ECS-PLD = Effortful Control Scale – Persistence/Low Distractibility subscale, ECR-S-AV = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form avoidant subscale, ECR-S-AX = Experience in Close Relationships – Short form anxious subscale

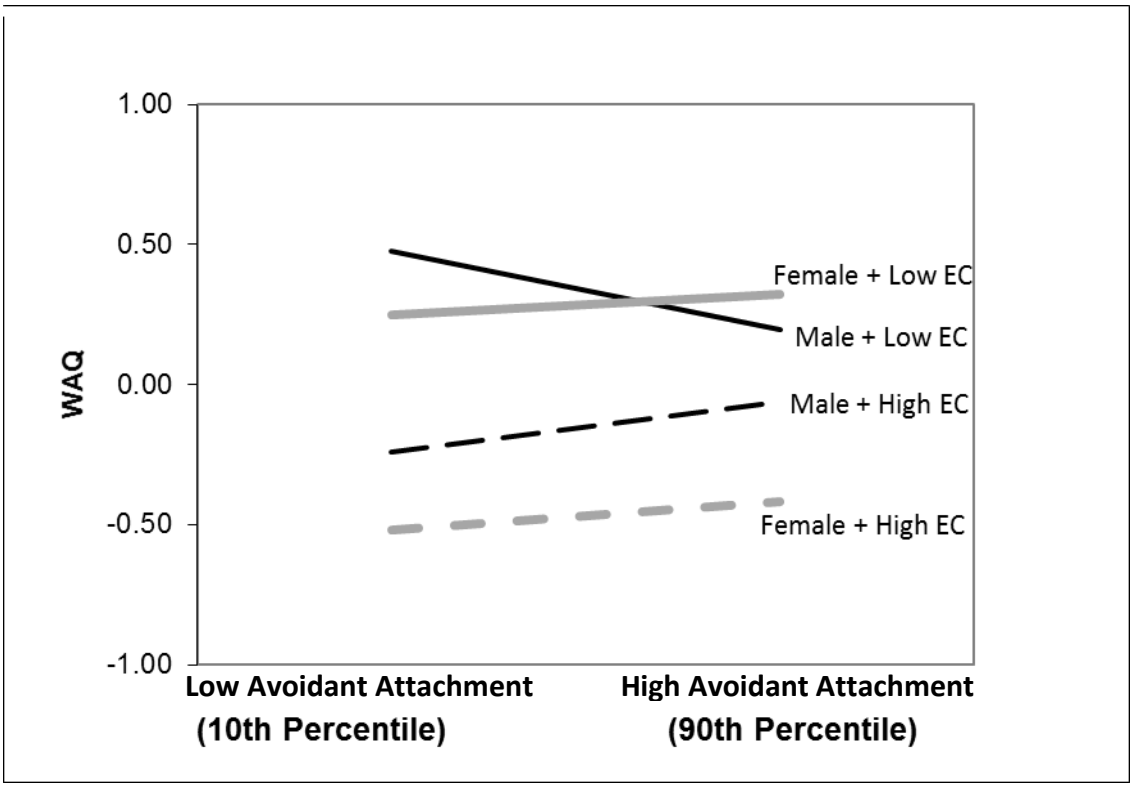

Figure 1. Avoidant attachment predicting WAQ total scores at varying levels of EC.

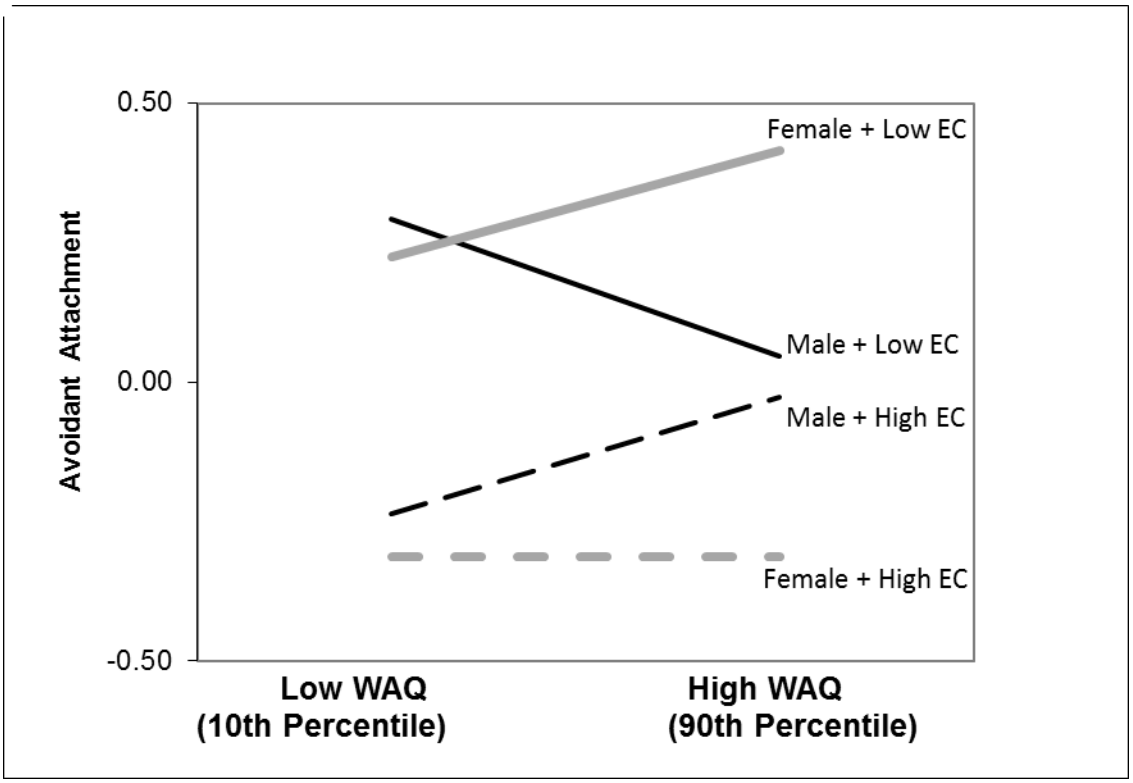

Figure 2. WAQ predicting ECR-S-AV (avoidant attachment) scores at varying levels of EC.